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ABSTRACT

Due to the educational reforms in Swedish schools following the Second World War, Latin became an elective course at the secondary level. Although it was agreed that a disproportionate amount of time was being spent on Latin, it was felt that a knowledge of Latin principles of word formation could still be useful. This paper describes a course devised to: (1) treat the parts of Latin and Greek which still function as everyday ingredients of Western languages in general vocabulary, scientific terminology, and proverbs and quotations; and (2) cultivate sensitivity for the functions of language and impart knowledge of the cultural-historical role of the classical languages. It is expected that students will learn to recognize significant Latin morphemes in English, French, German, Italian, and Swedish, and to analyze compounds into their constituent elements. The course curriculum includes a study of the history of the Latin alphabet, with transliteration of Greek and Cyrillic characters, and studies of language families, cognates, loan words and borrowings, word formation, and the historical role of Latin in the fields of geography, publishing, religion, and science. Textbooks for the course are discussed. (CLK)

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THE INTERNATIONAL VOCABULARY IN THE NEW SWEDISH GYMNASIUM

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Sweeping educational reforms in Sweden which began shortly after the end of World War II reached the gymnasium level in 1966. The 3-year program of the Arts line which had formerly been characterized by compulsory Latin (and optional Greek) was revised so that those students who do not now elect Latin (7 periods per week, grades 2 and 3) are instead offered a course in allmän språkkunskap, 'general language skills' (3 periods per week, each of 40 minutes' duration, during grade 2). Previously, Latin was studied for 3 or 4 years, a total of circa 800 or 875 hours. In the revised curriculum, optional Latin is studied for 280 hours in grade 2 and an additional 280 hours in grade 3, a total of 560 hours. The course in allmän språkkunskap, on the other hand, takes up only 120 hours.[1]

The dropping of compulsory Latin in the classical gymnasia of Sweden is, without question, a sharp break with tradition. It constitutes an admission on the part of rather conservative educational establishments that the bulk of their students, the majority of whom will embark upon professional careers, will not need to read either classical or medieval Latin after leaving school. The motivation for this reform in Sweden was not the real or imagined "terror" of Latin on the part of some students; rather, there was general agreement that a disproportionate amount of time was being spent upon Latin, especially in a world where daily evolution of technology makes increasing demands upon the student's time. Still, it was recognized after inquiries among representatives of commerce, industry, and the universities that, even if direct access to literary, historical, and philosophical texts in the classical languages is necessary for only a few students, some basic knowledge of Latin (and, to a lesser extent, of Greek) principles of word-formation remains essential for all of them. The historical role of the Latin language, too, in the cultures of Europe simply could not be neglected.[2]

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Abbreviations: E=English, F=French, G=German, Gr=Greek, I=Italian, L=Latin, R=Russian, S=Swedish, Sp=Spanish.

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A new "Ersatz" course, therefore, was devised to replace compulsory Latin. One reason, of course, for this addition to the curriculum was a desire to mitigate the criticism which inevitably was voiced when the reformers broke with long-standing tradition and dropped Latin. But a substitute course was desirable for a more positive reason also, because "parts of the syllabus of Latin must be looked on as very sound and useful knowledge even for the general student, not only for the classical specialist, and could serve as a very helpful background for the study of the modern languages, including the national tongue [Swedish]."[3]

The result was "un curso de analyse systematic del vocabulos international de origine greco-latin que es commun al lingua svedese e le linguas estranier le plus studiate in le schola"[4] with two purposes:

> (1) to treat that part of Latin and of Greek which still functions as an every-day ingredient of Western languages in general vocabulary, in scientific terminology, and in the form of proverbs and quotations. . . .
>
> (2) to cultivate sensitivity for the functions of language and to impart knowledge of the cultural-historical role of the classical languages.[5]

The suggestion that Latin be dropped altogether and no substitute course offered was not seriously entertained, because "on emphasava le importantia de ille parte del latino que vive e produce ancora terminos technic e que constitue un tresor de parolas cultural que es commun a omne linguas indo-europee. Le professores universitari de linguas exprimeva lor opinion que latino es indispensabile."[6]

It is not possible to deny the unique position of Latin in Western culture. It was the only lingua franca Europe ever knew and remained the vehicle of international communication not just among humanists but among scientists as well until the end of the 18th century. The monumental works of Copernicus, Des Cartes, Linnaeus, and Newton were published in Latin and thereby assured of an international audience throughout Europe.

Knowledge of Latin morphemes is of obvious value for the Romance-speaking student or for the student of Romance languages, all of which are derived from Latin. But it is also true that much of the vocabulary of the Germanic and even of the Slavic languages is directly or indirectly borrowed from Latin. In the case of the English language, for example, familiarity with Latin base morphemes and principles of word-formation can be an immensely helpful tool in increasing a student's vocabulary. Conversely, the argument has been made that Latin can be taught by analysis of English derivatives. A recent textbook uses this method in order to teach students to read Latin passages:

> The vast majority of Latin words have English derivatives. This is a fact not generally known. It therefore seems reasonable to suppose that if a person can learn to recognize an English word from a Latin base, he can read anything which the Latin authors have written. Of course, this presupposes a knowledge of Latin endings, the ability to decline and to conjugate. With this supposition in mind, [there] came into being a series of ten chapters teaching the students, through English, about five hundred Latin words whose meanings they already knew but had never recognized.[7]

It is not, admittedly, the purpose of allmän språkkunskap to teach students to read Latin or, for that matter, any other foreign language (although students are expected at the end of the course to recognize significant morphemes in Latin, French, German, Italian, Spanish, and English texts as well as in Swedish); but, by acquainting the student with those most common morphemes which generate the international words of the European languages, the course strives to refine his linguistic sensitivity so that he will be able to analyze compounds and recognize the Greco-latinate bases even when they occur under different forms in several national languages. In fact, there is probably more emphasis in this course upon the processes by which neologisms are created and become a part of contemporary language than there is upon the cultural-historical role of the Greco-Latin tradition in the past.[8]

Texts

There are two basic textbooks for allmän språkkunskap. Dr. Alvar Ellegård, Professor of English at the University of Göteborg, who proposed the new course, wrote De Internationella Orden (Stockholm, 1966). The title, "the international vocabulary," is, no doubt, a more accurate definition of the course than is the official "general language skills." Erik Wikén and Bo Einarsson are the authors of the other textbook, Allmän Språkkunskap (Stockholm, 1967). In addition, Ingvar Stenström's Interlingua: instrumento moderne de communication international (Stockholm, 1972) is used in some schools as a supplementary text.

The format of the two official texts is remarkably similar, with differences of emphasis. Both begin with an investigation of basic linguistic concepts (phonemes, morphemes, transliteration, cognates, loan words, loan translation words (calques), back-borrowings, and examples of word-formation); both include lexicons of the most important morphemes (Wikén's runs 12 pages, Ellegård's 63 pages). Wikén notes in a separate listing those morphemes which are homonymous and therefore confusing (the common element in pedestrian, pediatrics, and pedology, for example, is actually three distinct morphemes). Both authors provide a brief Latin grammar, emphasizing the differences between modern analytical languages and a synthetic language like Latin, rich in inflectional endings which indicate the relationships between words in a sentence. Both conclude with texts in Latin (different periods), English, French, German, Italian, and Spanish. The student is expected to follow a translation intelligently and to recognize common morphemes in these languages. Ellegård provides 31 pages of Latin texts (mostly Biblical) and 12 pages of modern texts, while Wikén gives 34 pages of Latin (frequently medieval) and 3 pages of modern languages.

Stenström's text is more recent and consequently not as widely used as yet. It does, however, possess one inherently superior trait: whereas the other two volumes use fairly difficult Swedish and English texts in order to provide a sufficiently high percentage of Greco-

latinate morphemes, Stenström's Interlingua texts contain a maximum of international words which makes the student's task much easier.[9]

Methodology

Alphabet. The course begins with a history of the Latin alphabet, derived from a Semitic syllabary, used by an Indo-European tongue (Greek), and then transmitted both to the West (Latin alphabet) and to the East (Cyrillic alphabet). Transliteration of Greek and Russian words, character by character, is often self-explanatory and requires no further elucidation (e.g., mētrópolis, arkhetip). Knowledge of spelling conventions and of changes in pronunciation over the course of time can also be important. Thus, G Keller and Kaiser reflect a period when L c (cellarium and Caesar) was always hard ('k'), whereas G Zell (from L cella) reflects a softening of c before e or i. Latin ae and oe merged, in spelling and pronunciation, with e. In some instances this has produced variant spellings (medieval and mediaeval); L foedus, 'league' has the adjectival form federalis. The interplay of two or more languages can produce even more confusing situations. The G Kaiser and R tsar are both derived from L Caesar. Greek ai became L ae and later e; Gr oi became L oe and later e. Thus, Gr haim-, 'blood' became L haem- and then hem- (hemophilia); Gr oik-, 'house' became in L oec- and then ec- (economics); Gr paid-, 'child' became L paed-, then ped- (pediatrics). Both Sp sistema and E system are variant transliterations of Gr sústēma. Greek proper names were often Latinized in translation, but today there is a tendency to restore the original spelling: Oidípous (Oedipus), Phoîbos (Phoebus), Kérberos (Cerberus), Kírkē (Circe).[10]

Language Families. Linguistic analysis comes into play when the relationships between languages are examined. Ellegård provides the student with sets of words in Swedish, English, and German:

hus, mus, ut	ben, sten, deg	ting, tre, tänka
house, mouse, out	bone, stone, dough	thing, three, think
Haus, Maus, aus	Bein, Stein, Teig	Ding, Drei, denken

and asks the student to draw the conclusion that all three languages are derived from one common source (proto-Germanic) and, additionally,

that because of phonetic changes S [illegible] corresponds to E /aw/, /ow/, /θ/ and to G /aw/, /ay/, /d/. After this first step in postulating a common proto-Germanic source, the student is given additional sets of words from Latin, Greek, and Russian as well as from the Germanic languages and led to conclude that these languages, no matter how different they may appear at the present, were at one time the same Indo-European language. Cf. S broder, R brat, L frater; S fader, L pater, E father; S tio, R desat, L decem, Gr déka, G zehn, E ten. These and similar sets of cognates support the conclusion that the Germanic, Slavic, Latin, Greek, Celtic, and Indo-Iranian languages are all derived from one ancient ancestor, Indo-European.[11]

More numerous than cognates are loan words. Examples in Swedish: hotell, miljö, kusin, aptit, konversation (from F); film, flirt, scout, supporter, jumper (from E); bekräfta, belägg, bemäktiga sig, and all the other words which begin with the prefix be- (from G); konto, torso (from I); and sombrero (from Sp). These are loans transported in their own native form into S. Additional loan words, from classical sources: fraternal, filial, avert, disarmingly, quadruplets, foundation, state, occultation. Neologisms too are often composed of classical elements: cosmonaut, electrocardiogram, astronaut, television, thermostat, supersonic, submarine, nuclear, electrothermal. At times the endings of Latin are preserved: professor, terminus, lector, circus, lexicon, emeritus, chorus, formula, genius, phenomenon, hydrophobia, tuberculosis, G Radius, Kursus, Studium.[12]

Occasionally, especially when people are concerned with 'linguistic purity', a loan word may undergo translation. It is then a 'loan translation word' (G Lehnübersetzungswort, F calque). Thus, F 'le week-end' is a loan, but 'fin de la semaine' is a loan translation word. German provides many examples: Fernsprecher 'telephone', Erdkunde 'geography', mitnehmen 'conceive'. Cf. Icelandic leikhus, 'theater'.

Loan words in English, an unusually "receptive" language, often date from the Norman Conquest of 1066. After that date the influence of F was so pervasive that even many common words in everyday spheres are derived from that source: aunt, uncle, cousin (family); general, army, corporal (military); court, judge (law); veal, beef, mutton (food).

Today, F is more likely to accept E words, some of which are back-borrowings: F rapporteur, E reporter, F réporter; F boeuf, E beef, F bifteck.

For a variety of reasons, including variant stems, different levels of usage, and different periods at which borrowing occurred, it sometimes happens that two loan words are produced by one original. Cf. E chief and chef; mile, millimeter (from L mille); humble, humility; priest, Presbyterian; S Mäster, magister; F coeur, cordial; frêle, fragilité. In French the distinction between mots savants and mots populaires is seen in pairs like:

hôtel	hôpital	(from L hospitale)
meuble	mobile	(from L mobile)
chose	cause	(from L causa).

Although most loan words in Swedish are of Greco-latinate origin, there are also exotic international words, e.g., S kaffe, te, banan, tobak. The student is introduced to nonIndo-European language families such as the Semitic tongues, Finno-Uralic, and to languages which defy classification in any family, such as Basque. Of the nonIndo-European languages, the one with the closest European contacts is Arabic which has given, in Swedish, amiral, siffra, zenit, karaff, divan, alkohol.[13]

Hybrids, i.e., words composed of elements from different languages are also numerous: speedometer, Autobahn, automobile, subway, truism. Abbreviations are another means of forming new words: radar (radio detection and ranging), laser (light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation), zoo(logical gardens), S (automo)bil, G Vopo (Volkspolizei), transistor (transfer resistor), polio(myelitis).

As an introduction to theory of word-formation, the student is taught the distinction between phoneme and morpheme. The latter, then, are divided into base morphemes and affix morphemes. Prefixes are of primary importance; infixes seldom occur. (The infix -n-, however, is common in L words. Cf. victor, but invincible. Also L unda, 'wave' is cognate with Gr húdōr, E water, G Wasser, and R voda.)

Two final linguistic concepts are the zero morpheme (house∅ vs. houses; sheep, singular, and sheep, plural) and ablaut (spring, sprang, sprung; G sprechen, sprach, gesprochen).[14]

Numerals

The class of words which best demonstrates the interrelationship of the Indo-European languages is the numerical system. It should be noted, however, that in addition to the cognates there are also scores of loan words as variants within this system. From Latin, semi-, 'half' (semifinal, semicolon), uni-, 'one' (unison, unilateral), prim-, 'first' (primary), simpl-, 'one-fold' (simplicity), singular-, 'one at a time' (singularity); du-, 'two' (duality), secund-, 'second', bi-, 'two by two' (binary); tri-, 'three' (triplet, Trinity), ter-, 'three' (tertiary); quart-, 'four' (quarter, quadrant); sex-, 'six' (sextant); sept-, 'seven' (septentrional, September, F semaine); octo-, 'eight' (octave); nov-, 'nine' (November); decem-, 'ten' (decimate, decimal, December, dime); duo-decem, 'twelve' (dozen); cent-, 'hundred' (per cent, century, centimeter); mille, 'thousand' (mile, million, milligram). From Greek, hemicycle, hemisphere; monogram, monastery, monorail; protoplasm, prototype; deuterium, deuteronomy; diglossia; trilogy, triptych, trigonometry; tetraploid, tetragrammaton; pentagon, pentateuch; hexameter; octopus, octagon; decalogue, decade, Decameron; dodecaphonic; kilometer. Also, multitude, polysyllabic, paucity, oligarchy, infinity, myriad. And, in the metric system (SI) the prefixes mega-, giga-, tera-, micro-, nano-, pico-. Cf. megaphone, I gigante, microcosm, F nain, I piccolo.[15]

Word-formation

Most derivatives from Latin consist of a base morpheme and an affix morpheme (prefix or suffix). Double stems are frequent in L verbs and as a result there are often two derived stems from a single L verb in contemporary languages. The final shape of the derivative may also be influenced by phonetic assimilation. In using dictionaries and refernce books, students with a smattering of L are often hampered by the fact that the nominative in L does not always show the same stem as the oblique cases. And in general derivatives show the stem of the accusative, although exceptions do occur. F on and homme are respectively derived from homo and hominem.

E shows genus, but generic; codex, but codicill. Irregular nominatives occur in L chiefly in the 3rd declension. Ellegård provides a concise set of paradigms for the student: art+s=ars, ment+s=mens, agent+s=agens, ped+s=pes, codic+s=codex, leg+s=lex, duc+s=dux, nation+Ø=natio, ordin+Ø=ordo, nomin+Ø=nomen, examin+Ø=examen. Rhotacism, i.e. change of intervocalic s to r, is another stumbling block in Latin: flor-, but nominative flos; corpor-, but nominative corpus, gener-, but nominative genus. Cf. E was, but were (intervocalic). The L imperfect of esse was originally *wesam, etc. , but it underwent rhotacism and became eram, etc.[16]

Assimilation of consonants is extremely common with prefixes, as may be seen in words compounded with the preposition ad: adjunct, accept, aggressive, annex, append, assist, attract. Sometimes there is alteration of the stem-vowel in compounds: L facere, but perficere; L capere, but concipere.

Compounds with prepositional prefixes are one of the most common feautres inherited from Latin. Ellegård and Wikén provide representative lists, which are by no means all-inclusive but do indicate the principles of compounding and do show phonetic assimilation.

a,ab,abs 'from'	abduct, abstraction, avert, abnormal
ad 'to'	addition, affluent, appendix
ante 'before'	anticipate, ante meridiem (A.M.)
circum 'around'	circumscribe, circumvent
cum,con 'with'	conclusion, collection, complete, cooperate, coalesce, commotion, condition, complicated
de, dis 'from'	deduction, disappear, differ, digression
ex, 'out of'	extract, eliminate, efficient
extra, 'outside'	extraordinary, extrasensory (perception)
in, 'in'	injection, illuminate, irrigate, inflate
in, 'not'	insane, illegal, irrational, uncertain
inter, 'between'	international, intercept
intra, 'within'	intravenous, introvert
ob, 'to'	obverse, occur, opponent, offer
per, 'through'	permutate, perfection
post, 'after'	postnatal, postpone
prae, 'before'	prearrange, prepare
re, 'back'	remove, revolve, recent, remit

se, 'apart'	segregate, secede
sub, 'under'	subscribe, suspend, suffix, suggest, succumb, suppress, suspect, submarine
super, 'over'	superfine, supersede
trans, 'through'	transmit, translate, transfer[17]

Another important compounding element is the suffix: dental, mental, neutral, formal, alpine, marine. In words like F picaresque and I grottesco, the Germanic suffix seen in G isch and S isk has been borrowed by the Romance languages. More often, however, the influence runs in the other direction:

-al,-ial	regal, cordial, naval, terrestrial
-an,-ial	meridian, veteran, American
-ar	regular, singular
-ary	literary, ordinary (=F -aire, littéraire, ordinaire)
-ic	classic, terrific
-ile	servile, puerile
-ine	marine, feline
-ous	nervous, glorious (=F eux, I -oso)
-oid	negroid, anthropoid

Noun suffixes, in several languages, are:

L -itate, E -ity, F -ité, I -ità, Sp -itad, G -ität, S -itet, as in sanity, santé, sanità, etc.

L -itude, E -itude, F -itude, S -itud, as in multitude.

L -itia, F -esse, I -ezza, Sp -eza, as in F tristesse.

L -ia, E -y, F -ie, S -i, as in atrophy, theology, geography, astronomy, S polygami.

Also, ism/ist (nudism/nudist, anarchism/anarchist), -ast (enthusiast, gymnasiast), -aster (poetaster), -sis/tic (analysis/analytic, ellipsis/elliptical, syntax/syntactic, sepsis/septic, crisis/critical, ecstasy/ecstatic).

Of verbal suffixes two of the most important are the first conjugation -ficare and -isare: qualify/qualification, F mystifier/mystification, G mystifizieren/Mystifikation, E mystify/mystification. E satisfy/satisfaction shows variation. E colonize, colonization, F coloniser, colonisation, G kolonisieren, Kolonisation. So too organize, popularize,

and many other verbs. Other important patterns in the first conjugation are fabricate/fabrication, communicate/communication, and multiply/multiplication (from -plicare).

In the remaining three verbal conjugations, double stems (present and supine stem) are common. In fact, the supine stem is a phonetically altered variant of the present stem, but this is not always obvious. Double stems:

recede, recession; proceed, procession; exceed, excessive; conceive, conception; reflect, reflection; remit, remission; repel, repulsive; impress, imprint; inscribe, inscription; resolve, resolution; avert, aversion; revolve, revolution.

The English language is especially liable to form present infinitives from L supine stems: suggest, accept, project, promote, depress, corrupt, contract, conduct, compose, suppose, impress. At times there may be two E verbs derived from the two stems of a single L verb: reduce, conduct, induce, induct (from the L base ducere); remit, dismiss (from L mittere). Other parts of speech are commonly formed on the supine stem: flexure, injection, commotion, tractor, dissatisfaction.

Miscellaneous morphemes are the many adjectives in -abile,-ibile; agent nouns in -tor (or -sor), and the productive endings -nt (present participle active) and -nd (passive participle future): S skribent, kontrollant, G Dirigent, E dominant, abstinent, eminent, intelligent; G Doktorand, E dividend, addendum, agenda.[18]

Latin Grammar

Both Ellegård and Wikén provide a brief Latin grammar even though the course is regarded as a substitute for Latin. Not only do both texts stress the differences between a synthetic tongue like Latin, which expresses relationships among words by means of inflected endings, and analytical languages such as the Romance tongues, which indicate these relationships by means of independent particles (prepositions), but also both attempt to illustrate this principle in great detail with full Latin conjugations and declensions. This part of the course is perhaps the least satisfactory since throughout the

gymnasium system, we are assured, the students, while able to follow a translation of L texts intelligently, are unable to decipher them without aid.

Wikén, in his "kort latinkurs," briefly touches upon the subject of Late Latin, the stratum which followed the classical period and produced the Romance languages. Understanding of these languages is impossible without some study of the changes that took place in this stage. Equus was replaced by caballus (F cheval, Sp caballo), caput by testa (I testa, F tête), sol 'sun' by soliculus 'little sun' (F soleille) in France alone. The common verb ire 'to go' dropped out for the most part and was replaced by ambulare (F aller), ambitare (I andare), and v[illegible] (I vado = F je vais). A more detailed examination of this aspect of the historical development of the Latin language might prove to be more profitable than the listings of declensional endings which both Ellegård and Wikén give.[19]

Derivatives from Greek

Ellegård estimates that of the 8,000 most common English words about 4,000 are of Latin derivation, while no more than 300 are from Greek (and a good deal of all Greek derivatives come into the modern languages through Latin rather than directly). Nonetheless, Greek elements are sufficiently important, he believes, to justify some comment. The verbal suffix -izō (as in baptízō, hellenízo) became the L -isare, E -ize. With suffixes added to it, it gives the agent -ist (Baptist) and the abstraction -ism (baptism). Another productive Greek suffix is the adjectival -ik- (logikós, hupnotikos). As is the case with Latin, however, prepositonal prefixes are more widely used in the formation of compounds and continue to be the most significant classical item at present in modern tongues. A sample of those listed by Ellegård follows:

a/an	(alpha privative) atheist, anarchist, anemia amoral, anomalous
anti-	antithesis, antagonist, antipodes
archi-	architect, archenemy, archangel
auto-	automatic, autodidactic
dia-	diagnosis, dialect
hemi-	hemisphere, hemicycle
hyper-	hypercritical (=L super)
hypo-	hypothesis (=L sub)
meta-	metathesis, metaphor, metastasize
macro-	macrocephalous, macron
micro-	microcosm, microscope
mono-	monorail, monopoly
neo-	neoteric, neophyte, neolithic, neologism
pan-	pandemic, panorama, panacea
para-	paradox, paragraph, paraphernalia
peri-	peripetal, peripheral
poly-	polymorphous, polygamy, polygon
proto-	protomartyr, proton, protoplast
pseudo-	pseudonym, pseudomorph
syn-	synchronous, syntax, syllable, symmetry.[20]

Classical Loanwords

If the most important influence of the classical languages upon the contemporary tongues of Europe and the Americas has been the vast number of base morphemes (roots) which are used by the latter to express their new inventions and ideas, there is still in addition a wealth of phrases which embody the unaltered, inflected classical words. The influence of the classical languages upon Europe has been so great that even today scores of inflected, foreign endings are retained: S gymnasium, stadium, kollega, viktoria, data, temata, schemata, E circus, species, series, lexicon, criterion. A rather rudimentary knowledge of declensional endings (number and case) clarifies many forms. Plurals of the masculine second declension: bacilli, nuclei, stimuli, termini, G Modi, Numeri; plurals of the feminine first declension: formulae, alumnae, Lilliaceae, Talpidae; ablatives: gratis (=gratiis), ex officio; Gr ē = L a: ultima Thule,

Eurydice, Penelope; neuter second declension: acidum hydrochloricum; preservation of gender of the L original: lyceum (neuter) becomes F le lycée, I il liceo, Sp el liceo; silentium (neuter) becomes F le silence, I il silenzio, Sp el silencio; neuter plurals were in L confused with feminine singulars (both had the -a ending), hence: joca becomes F la joie, folia becomes la feuilee, biblia becomes F la Bible. Oblique cases: phrases such as a priori, de facto, in re, and many others. Sweden and other nations for centuries used Latinized surnames in publications: Nobelius (Nöbbelöv), Linnaeus (Linné), Melanchthon (Schwarzerd), Cartesius (Des Cartes), Petri (Pederson), Pauli (Pålson), Andreae (Andersson).

Another class of plurals whose forms may cause confusion occurs in the L third declension: E bases, theses, analyses, parentheses, codices, indices; S examina, schemata, kommata. Latin fifth declension nouns may show no difference in the singular and in the plural: series, species. Wikén also shows the survival of the absolute construction in both English and French: Tout compris, le repas coûte dix francs; le nombre des places étant limité, il faut faire une réservation. These are modeled on L phrases such as deo volente, ceteris paribus, etc.[21]

Historical Role of Latin

Wikén seeks to cultivate some sensitivity to the cultural role of Latin by employing examples from three spheres: geography, publishing, and religion. Medieval Latinization of place names: Suecia, Holmia, Helvetia, Argentoratum (Strasbourg), Hafnia (Copenhagen), Varsovia, Oxonium, Bipontium (Zweibrücken); modern names on Latin models: Rhodesia, Liberia, Monrovia, Louisiana (after Louis XIV), Tanzania (Tanganyika + Zanzibar). Also, E names in -caster, -cester,-chester (from L castra 'camp'): Lancaster, Leicester, Colchester. Publishing: praefatio, index nominum, index rerum, index verborum, apparatus criticus, lectio difficilior, editio princeps, ibidem, idem, vide, loc. cit., ex libris NN, imprimatur, supra. Scientific series in addition often have L titles: Acta Neurologica Scandinavica, Studia Scientiae Pedagogicae Upsaliensia. The role of Latin within the Church in Western Europe scarcely requires demonstration. Both Wikén and Ellegård provide sample texts from the Gospels, the Sanctus,

Ave Maria, Stabat Mater, Pater Noster, and the Dies Irae. Stenström has observed that students show very limited ability in reading these Latin texts. He suggests that the formal differences between synthetic and analytical languages may be responsible for the difficulties which students encounter at this point in the course (and it may also be true that lack of time to deal with these problems adequately is a factor), but it may also be the case that the subject is not so relevant or important to this generation of students as some of their instructors might have wished.

Finally, since the most important application of this course lies in the field of science, examples of the binomial nomenclature introduced by Linnaeus are given, along with other scientific terminology. Anatomy: abdomen, anterior, biceps, brachium, digitus, femur, tibia, trapezius; astronomy: alpha Coma Berenices, alpha Lacertae, Gemini, Pisces, Libra, and the other signs of the zodiac, solstitium aestivum, aequinoctium autumnale, aurora borealis, Via lactea, Mare Imbrium, Mare Nubium, Mare Serenitatis, Mare Tranquillitatis, Oceanus Procellarum, and (on Mars) Mare Sirenum, Solis lacus. Bacteriology: bacillus Anthracis, bacillus botulinus, bacillus pertussis, bacterium coli, corynebacterium diphtheriae, streptococcus pyogenes, anemia perniciosa, sclerosis disseminata, febris typhoides, angina pectoris, vitium organicum cordis, delirium tremens, dementia praecox, bronchitis sicca, oedema pulmonum, ictus solis, fractura baseos cranii. Botany: viola odorata, chrysanthemum leucanthemum, papaver nudicaule, trifolium repens, cannabis sativa. Zoology: vespa vulgaris, musca domestica, canis familiaris, homo sapiens, mammalia, Lepidoptera, Foraminifera.[22]

The all-pervasive extension of the International Scientific Vocabulary throughout the world has long been recognized. Gode, in the preface to the Interlingua-English Dictionary, wrote:

The modern world is pervaded in all its parts and phases by a powerful influence which has reduced the vastness of the globe to a matter of hours and has diffused things and ideas and problems to every corner of every continent. If one simple label is wanted to designate the force responsible for all the good and all the evil that distinguishes our contemporary world from that of centuries past, we may call it the power of science and technology. But, if we go on to ask, has not this world-wide sweep of science and technology carried with it to all corners of the world a language of its own, somewhat in the manner of the medieval Church of Rome which took its Latin language with it wherever it brought its expansive influence to bear, the answer is a peculiarly hesitant one. Yes, in a way there is such a language. But if this is to lead to the conclusion that that language should then be regarded as the one and only possible auxiliary world language of modern times, we suddenly realize that the language of science and technology is no language in the full sense of the word but at best a vast body of international terms and phrases which appear in our various languages under a corresponding number of slightly varying forms. . . . In interlinguistic terms all this means that even though the "language" of science and technology is not a full-fledged language, even though it can supply us only with a vast number of words and phrases of international validity in various peculiarly national but easily recognizable forms, it does represent a nucleus of a complete language. It does represent fragments of the only international language we have. And the task of the practical interlinguist turns out to be the selection and arrangement of international words and subsequently their expansion into a fully developed language — a language, of course, which, though it may have its base and its raison d'être in the vast domain of technological data, will draw on and cover the arts and all other endeavors down to the most humble concerns of our daily lives.23

The Swedish experiment has so far been content to analyze the Latin roots found in the contemporary European languages; its purpose is clearly to facilitate mastery of foreign languages and to enhance comprehension of the native tongue, but not to develop a full-fledged international language. Yet, two considerations are encouraging. First, the Swedish course emphasizes international words only; no peculiarly national words or phrases (e.g., Sp amarillo, R otéts) are cited. Moreover, Stenström's Interlingua text is gaining in popularity because students find it much more accessible than the highly technical Swedish and English passages in, say, Ellegård's text. Secondly, with its emphasis on Latin phrases, proverbs, and even individual words preserved in their original (inflected) forms, its emphasis upon the cultural role of Latin (publishing, religion, arts, geography), and its emphasis upon the analysis of L morphemes in nonscientific texts in various modern languages, it is a step towards a language which can express all the concerns of human life.

Appendix I

Humphreys, sample L roots and E derivates:

ROOT	MEANING	DERIVATIVE
260. carrus, carr-, n., 2	wagon	cart
261. carus, car-, adj., 1 & 2	dear	French, "cher"
262. casa, cas-, n., 1	hut	casa
263. castellum, castell-, n., 2	fortress, citadel	castle (see castra)
264. castiga-, castigat-, v., 1	punish	castigate
265. castra, castrorum, n., 2, pl.	camp	Win*chester* (see casa)
266. castus, cast-, adj., 1 & 2	pure	chaste
267. casus, cas-, n., 4	a fall, an accident	casualty (see cad-)
268. catena, caten-, n., 1	chain	concatenate
269. cathedra, cathedr-, n., 1	a chair	cathedral
270. cauda, caud-, n., 1	tail	caudal
271. causa, caus-, n., 1	cause	cause
272. cave-, caut-, v., 2	beware	caution
273. cavus, cav-, adj., 1 & 2	hollow	cavity, cavern
274. ced-, cess-, v., 3	go, yield	secession, cede
275. cela-, celat-, v., 1	hide	conceal
276. celebra-, celebrat-, v., 1	throng	celebration
277. celebs, celib-, adj., 3	unmarried	celibate
278. celera-, celerat-, v., 1	hasten	accelerate
279. cella, cell-, n., 1	small room	cell (from cela-, related to *clam*)
280. celum (caelum), cel-, n., 2	sky	celestial
281. cena, cen-, n., 1	dinner	cenacle
282. cense-, cens-, v., 2	judge	censure
283. centum, adj.	hundred	percent, century
284. cenum (caenum), cen-, n., 2	filth	obscene
285. cera, cer-, n., 1	wax	kerosene
286. Ceres, Cerer-, n., 3	Ceres (harvest goddess)	cereal
287. -cern-, cret-, v., 3	sift, behold	discern
288. certa-, certat-, v., 1	struggle	(see cern-)
289. certamen, certamin-, n., 3	contest	(see cern-)
290. certus, cert-, adj., 1 & 2	definite	certain
291. cerul- (see celum)	of the sky	cerulian
292. cervix, cervic-, n., 3	head and shoulders	cervical, cerebrum
293. cervus, cerv-, n., 2	stag	cerf
294. ceteri, ceter-, adj., 1 & 2, pl.	other	et cetera
295. chorus, chor-, n., 2	dance	choral
296. cibus, cib-, n., 2	food	cibarious
297. -cid- (see cad-, caed-)		
298. cie-, cit-, v., 2	stir up	excite
299. ciner-, n., 3	ashes	incinerate
300. cing- (cinx-), cinct-, v., 3	gird	cincture

Appendix II

Stenström, vocabulary and "explicationes," word-formation:

tornar vända
favor ynnest; förmån
tornar se in favor de börja få en gynnsam inställning till
captivar fånga
ard|er glöda
ard|or glöd
brillar glänsa, strålа
brillante briljant, lysande
frappar slå, jfr *frappant*
fulmine blixt
durante que medan, under det att
singule enda
maternal moderlig, moder-
a pena knappast; eg. "med nöd"
remar|c abile märkbar, värd att märka
app.llo upprop
acceptar antaga
applauso applåd
sympa thia sympati
applauder applådera
enthusi|astic entusiastisk

EXPLICATIONES

53 **-i fic|ar** 'göra så att något blir ...' Ex.: *petra* sten, *petr|i fic|ar* förstena, petrifiera; *pur* ren, *purificar* rena, jfr sv. *purist* språkrensare och *puritan* renlevnadsman.

Morfemet -fic- är detsamma som fac- (göra), med en försvagning av vokalen, som ofta uppträder i latinet och döljer en del sammanhang, som det kan vara nyttigt att känna till. Om man bortser från specialfall, gäller för basmorfem som kommer att stå i annan stavelse än den första att
a och *e* blir *i* i stavelse som slutar på vokal (s. k. öppen stavelse)
au blir *u* i stavelse som slutar på vokal
a blir *e* i stavelse som slutar på konsonant (sluten stav.)
Ex. (här uppdelade först i morfem, därefter i stavelser):
amico vän, *inimico* ovän (av *in|amico*, i stavelser: i-ni-mi-co)
leger plocka, läsa, *colliger* sammanplocka, samla (*con|leg|er*, i stavelser: col-li-ger)
clauder stänga, *excludere* utestänga (*ex|claud|er*, i stavelser: ex-clu-der)
facer göra, *effecto* verkan (*ex|fac|to*, i stavelser: ef-fec-to)
Några nybildningar av ord enligt dessa komplicerade mönster sker givetvis inte i interlingua, utan ovanstående är enbart en smula latinsk språkhistoria.

-is|ar har ungefär samma betydelse som **-fic|ar:** *neutralisar* göra neutral.

-is|ta 1) 'person, som sysslar med ...' (oftast konstnärligt, ibland tekniskt yrke): *pianista, artista*, 2) anhängare till någon **-is|mo** lära eller tankeriktning: *socialista, socialismo*. Orden på **-ista** kan också användas som adjektiv: *un partito socialista* ett socialistiskt parti. 54

-a mento (efter *-a*-verb) och **-i mento** (efter *-e-* och *-i*-verb) 'handlingen att ... -a' eller 'resultatet av att ... -a'. Ex.: *arrangiamento* arrangemang av *arrangiar* arrangera; *consentimento* samtycke av *consentir* samtycka; *fragmento* brottstycke, av *fra|n|g|er* bryta. 55

När IALA utarbetade interlingua visade det sig, att ett litet antal s. k. "grammatiska småord" inte hade tillräcklig internationalitet för att kunna räknas som interlingua enligt IALA:s prototyppprincip. IALA stod då inför valet — men valde tyvärr inte! — mellan ett rent latinskt ord och ett romanskt ord med stöd av mindre än tre romanska språk. I texter kan därför läsaren beräknas påträffa andra varianter än de författaren — efter noggrant övervägande — här använt. De vanligaste: 56

alicun etc. = *alcun* någon etc.
an = *esque* (inleder ja- el. nejfråga)
anque = *etiam* också
celle = *ille* den där
ci = *hic* här
dum = *durante |que|* under det att, medan
era = *esseva* var (imperf. av 'vara')
illac = *ibi* där
|non| — jammais = *|n|un-quam:* |icke| någonsin
ma, mais = *sed* men, utan
nimis = *troppo* alltför
ora = *nunc* nu
pauc|o| = *poc|o|* få, föga
qualcun = *alcun* någon
semper = *sempre* alltid
sera, serea = *essera, esserea* skall resp. skulle vara
son = *es* (vid pluralt subjekt)
tamben = *etiam* också

Appendix III

Ellegård, lexicon of base morphemes:

simil *similis* 'lik'
simulāre 'göra lik'
simul 'samtidigt'

simultan	simultaneous	simultané	**simultan**
simulera	simulate	simuler	**simulieren**
	dissimulate	dissimuler	
	similar	similaire	
	dissimilarity	dissimilitude	
	resemble	ressembler	
	seem	sembler	
assimilera	assimilate	assimiler	**assimilieren**

sist se st

situ *situs, sitūs* 'läge, ställning'

	site	site m	
situation	situation	situation f	**Situation f**
situerad	situate	situer	**situiert**

soci *socius* 'bundsförvant'

social	social	social	**sozial**
associera	associate	associer	**assoziieren**
societet	society	société f	

sol *sôlus* 'ensam'

	sole	seul	
	solitary	solitaire	
	solitude	solitude f	
	desolate	désoler	

solv *solvere, solvī, solūtum* 'lösa, betala'

solvera	solve		
solvent	solvent	solvable	**solvent**
absolvera	absolve	absoudre	**absolvieren**
	resolve	résoudre	
	dissolve	dissoudre	
absolut	absolute	absolu	**absolut**
solution	solution	solution f	
	insoluble	insoluble	

son *sonus, sonī* 'ljud'
sonāre, sonuī, sonitum 'ljuda'

	sound	son m	
sonor	sonorous	sonore	**sonor**
	resound	résonner	
resonans	resonance	résonance f	**Resonanz f**

Appendix IV

Wikén, lexicon of morphemes:

CARN	kött	karni-vorer, inkarnera
CARP (καρπ)	frukt	monokarp
CAS se **CID**[1]		
CASE	ost	kasein, ty. Käse,
cat(a)- (κατ(α)-)	ned-	kat-od, kat-et, kat-eter
CAU (καυ)	brända	kaustı´k (soda)
CAV	ihålig	kavitet
CED/CESS	gå, vika, avstå	precedensfall, procession
CEL, CAEL, COEL	himmel	celest
CELER	snabb	acceleration
CEN[1], **CAEN** (καιν)	ny	eocen
CEN[2], **COEN** (κοιν)	gemensam	bioceno´s
CEPHAL (κεφαλ)	huvud, skalle	brakycefal
CER[1]	vax	cerat, fra. cire
CER[2], **CERAT** (κερ, κερατ)	horn	keratin, eng. rhinoceros
CEREBR	hjärna	cerebral
CESS se **CED**		
CHIR (χειρ)	hand	kiro-praktor
CHLOR (χλωρ)	grön	kloro-fyll
CHOL (χολ)	galla	kole-sterin
CHORD (χορδ)	band, sträng	korda
CHROM, CHROMAT (χρωμ, χρωματ)	färg	polykrom, kromatisk
CHRON (χρον)	tid	krono-meter
CHRYS (χρυσ)	guld	kryso-lit
CHTHON (χθον)	jord, mark	autokton
CID[1]/**CAS**	falla, inträffa	recidiv, eng. casual
CID[2]/**CIS**	hugga, skära, döda	biocider, eng. incision
CIN (κιν)	röra	kinetisk, kinemato-graf
circum-	omkring	cirkumpolar
CIS se **CID**[2]		
CLAM/CLAMAT	ropa	proklamera
CLAUD, CLUD/CLAUS, CLUS	sluta, stänga	klaustrofobi, inkludera, konklusion
CLEPT (κλεπτ)	stjäla	klepto-mani
CLIN[1] (κλιν)	säng	klinik
CLIN[2]/**CLINAT**	böja	deklination
CLUD/CLUS se **CLAUD**		
COCC (κοκκ)	kärna	streptokock
COEL se **CEL**		
COEN se **CEN**[1]		
COL/CULT	odla, dyrka	kult, kultivator, fra. agricole
COLL (κολλ)	lim	kollage, Modocoll
CORD	hjärta	kordial
CORPOR	kropp	inkorporera
COSM (κοσμ)	prydnad, (världs-) ordning	kosmetik, kosmos
CRAT (κρατ)	välde, härska	demokrati
CRE[1]/**CREAT**	skapa	rekreera, kreation
CRE[2], **CREAT** (κρε, κρεατ)	kött	kreo-sot, kreatin
CRED/CREDIT	tro	kredo, kreditiv
CRYPT (κρυπτ)	dölja, gömma	kryptisk

Appendix V

Ellegård, inflectional endings of the L verb:

Den latinska verbböjningens morfemuppsättning

Basmorfem	Stam-vokal	Allm tempus-morfem	Tempus-modus-morfem	Personändelse		
				Allm akt	Perf ind	Pass
vid	ŏ			ŏ		
prob	(ā)			ŏ		
sequ						or
tent	ā		bā	m		
cur	ā	v			ī	
viv			(e)rĕ	m		
mor	i		ā			r
dic		s			ī	
salv	ā	v			ī	
(vic)		(vinc)	ē	s		
(d)		(ded)	eri	s		
hab	ē		b	(i)s		
tac		u	issĕ	s		
man		s	issĕ	s		
lu(d)		s			istī	
(ed)		(ĕd)			istī	
bib					istī	
ab-ut			ĕ			ria re
(vic)		(vinc)		(i)t		
(viv)		(vix)			it	
aud	ī		ā			tur
hab	ē			t		
aud	ī		ā	t		
loqu						(i)mur
bib			ā	mus		
de-cid					imus	
(es)		(s)		(u)mus		
iudic	ā	v	eri	tis		
iudic	ā		b			(i)minī
(ven)		(vĕn)			istis	
cub	(ā)		ŏ	nt		
(es)		(fu)			ērunt	
(es)		(s)		(u)nt		
vol		u			ērunt	
(od)		(ŏd)	eri	nt		
metu			ā	nt		
(es)		(fu)			ērunt	
mer		u			ēre	
mut	(ā)					ntur
divid				(e)		
imper	ā					
es				te		
plaud				(i)te		

Appendix VI

Wikén, sample modern texts:

Några modernspråkiga texter

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La Chiesa di San Pietro in Vaticano è il tempio più famoso del mondo. Le sue proporzioni immense sono popularmente rinomate. Il celebre colonnato di Bernini, che consiste di trecento colonne è un miracolo architettonico. La mirabile proporzione delle linee attenua l'impression della vastità e della superba altezza.

fra. église — tempel — fra. plus fameux — mondial — proportion — eng. immense — popular — renommé — celeber — kolonn — eng. consist — mirakel — eng. admirable — linje — eng. attenuate, impression — eng. vast — superb — altitud

Roma, la Città Eterna, è una città straordinaria. Mito, leggenda, storia, archeologia, religione, arte, poesia, tutto ha impresso a Roma un carattere che è unico al mondo.

eng. eternal, city, extraordinary — myt — artist — fra. tout — eng. impress — unik

(Efter Kirchheimer, Aase, 100 lektioner i italienska)

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It is always illuminating to watch the changing fashion in the interpretation of the past. History is like a plant, which certainly changes, but changes *im*perceptibly minute by minute. It requires the magic of the slow-motion camera to reveal the tortu*ous* twists, the almost emotion*al* signs of desire for growth towards the sun which the plant undergoes as it evolves from stage to stage in its development. We human beings, however, live in the present. We see the past and *anti*cipate the future by the light of our present-day vision. We scarcely believe that this vision changes focus from day to day. We only recognize with amusement how we change our outlook as between longer periods of time. But these glimpses back, this "research into the forgotten past," can only be a relatively truthful form of *re-*

lat. illu'mino 1
lat. interpreta'tio, -onis

fra. imperceptible
lat. requi'ro 3
lat. reve'lo 1 — lat. tortuo'sus
fra. emotion — lat. deside'rium
lat. evo'lvo 3
lat. sta'dium

lat. anti'cipo 1

fra. amusement

Appendix VII

Ellegård, modern texts:

Die Eltern äussern meist emotionelle Gründe, wenn das Problem diskutiert wird. Mädcheneltern stehen der Koedukation misstrauisch, ängstlich und ablehnend gegenüber.

Rudolf Körner, **Wenn das Kind lächelt. Natur och kultur, 1960**

ÖVNINGAR

1. Vilka internationella klassiska lånord finns i texten? Ge för varje ord en svensk eller engelsk motsvarighet.
2. Ange morfembyggnad och förhållandet mellan etymologisk och aktuell betydelse hos orden *Koedukation, international, Präzision, emotionell, indifferent.*
3. Förklara den tyska stavningen av vad som i svenskan är *e* i orden *Pädagoge, paläolithisch, Ökonomie, Diarrhöe, Hypothese, Telephon.*
4. Ge exempel på ytterligare ord, förutom de i texten, där latinskt *c* återges med *z* i tyskan. Vilken regel kan man formulera härom?

Coopération économique

Comme la plupart des autres pays d'Europe, la France fait partie des organismes créés après la guerre pour établir une coopération internationale dans le domaine économique : Fonds Monétaire International, Commission Economique pour l'Europe à l'ONU, OECE, et maintenant OCDE.

C'est, on s'en souvient, le plan Marshall qui est à l'origine de la création de ces organismes. Les Américains avaient en effet apporté aux pays d'Europe ruinés par la guerre une aide financière indispensable pour leur reconstruction, mais le plan Marshall proposait de substituer à des prêts consentis à chacun des pays, une aide collective, subordonnée à l'établissement d'un programme économique commun. Les 16 pays qui acceptèrent ce principe, constituèrent en 1948 l'Organisation Européenne de Coopération Economique (OECE), à laquelle l'Allemagne de l'Ouest devait adhérer en 1953. Les pays participants s'engageaient à coopérer pour développer les échanges en réduisant les tarifs douaniers et les obstacles à l'expansion des relations économiques internationales.

L'Organisation de Coopération et de Développement Economique (OCDE) a remplacé l'OECE en 1960, elle englobe les Etats-Unis et le Canada. Son action, plus vaste que celle de l'OECE, s'oriente vers les pays en voie de développement.

Appendix VII (cont.)

La coopération européenne s'est également établie sur le plan politique, avec le Conseil de l'Europe, qui a son siège à Strasbourg et comprend un Conseil des Ministres et une Assemblée interparlementaire européenne.

— — —

L'intégration des économies européennes va plus loin que la simple coopération, puisqu'elle vise à la constitution d'une unité organique, dépassant le cadre des souverainetés nationales. Le premier exemple d'intégration a été le Benelux, groupant la Belgique, les Pays-Bas et le Luxembourg.

Eugène-Pierre Davoust och Kjell Hessérus, La vie économique et sociale de la France. Svenska Bokförlaget, Bonniers 1964.

ÖVNINGAR

1. Ange de internationella klassiska lånorden i stycket och ge engelska eller svenska motsvarigheter till dem.
2. Några ord i texten är grekiska och har grekiska suffix. Ange dessa ord, deras morfemstruktur och deras etymologiska betydelse.
3. Vilka av lånorden i stycket har latinska prefix? Ange dessa ords morfemstruktur och etymologiska betydelse. Vilka av orden motsvaras av svenska översättningslån?
4. Ordet *établir* är besläktat med ordet *stabil*, *étude* med *studier*, *Espagne* med *Spanien*, *escalier*, *échelle* med *skala*. Sök i morfemlexikonet ytterligare exempel på hur latinskt *st*, *sp*, *sc* återges i franska arvord, och formulera en så enkel regel som möjligt härför.
5. Vilka är de substantiv (i något av de moderna språken) som motsvarar de verb i texten som är bildade med latinskt prefix? Vilka är de verb som motsvarar de substantiv i texten som bildats med latinskt prefix?

The Times

The Times, founded in 1785, is one of the oldest of British newspapers, and one of the most famous papers in the world. Its reputation rests on accuracy and reliability, a world-wide coverage of news, a refusal to allow sensationalism to enter its pages, and a high degree of informed judgment in its leading articles.

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FOOTNOTES

1. I would like to acknowledge gratefully the encouragement and advice given by Ingvar Stenström, Instructor in the Varberg Gymnasium. It is no exaggeration to say that without his help this paper could not have been written. If, in spite of his detailed reports and probing comments and corrections, any errors remain, the responsibility is mine alone. Statistics on the number of hours devoted to Latin (old curriculum and new curriculum) and allmän språkkunskap are taken from Stenström, "Experientias del Inseniamento del Vocabulario International in le Nove Gymnasio Svedese," Currero Internationál de Interlingua (Magazin del Union Mundial pro Interlingua), 38 (October-December, 1974), pp. 1-5. The course title is perhaps more accurately rendered as "general language-learning ability," and there is widespread dissatisfaction over this. Stenström writes, "le nomine 'allmän språkkunskap' non es le svedese pro 'general linguistics' (=allmän språkvetenskap o: lingvistik) sed le resultato (universalmente criticate) de un compromisso. Inter multe cosas on ha proponite 'jämförande språkkunskap' (=comparative cognoscentia del lingua). Solmente le "vocabulario international" coperi le contento real del curso." (Personal communication, 1975-10-10).

2. Foreign language study in this country continues to decline (and it is not a question of substituting modern languages for Latin and Greek). A recent MLA poll of American colleges found a 9.2% drop in foreign language enrollments during 1970-1972, and it predicts (on the basis of a sample of 400 colleges) an additional 6% decline during 1972-1974. See MLA Newsletter (May, 1975), p. 3.

3. Charlotta Friedner (Förste byråsekreterare, Skolöverstyrelsen), personal communication, 1975-06-12.

4. Stenström, op. cit., p. 1.

5. Läroplan för gymnasiet, "Allmän Språkkunskap," p. 154 (Stockholm: Skolöverstyrelsen, 1965). Syllabus for the course, prepared by the National Swedish Board of Education.

6. Stenström, op. cit., p. 1.

7. James Patton Humphreys, Basic Latin Through English (Cambridge: Educators Publishing Service, Inc., 1969), p. iii.

8. Wikén's text, in fact, has just gone out of print and it appears that it will no longer be used on account of its overemphasis on Latin — what Stenström calls an "apologia pro le studio del linguas classic in loco de explicator del structura del vocabulario

international. . . . Toto es a interpretar como un illustration del necessitate del studio del linguas classic durante que le quintessentia de iste subjecto de facto es de recoltar le fructos dulce (lege:utile) sin exhaurir su fortias per le pesante cultivar del planta, i.e. un tote lingua difficilissime." (Personal communication, 1975-10-10).

9. The majority of schools have always used Ellegård's text. Both he and Wikén provide charts of the inflectional endings in Latin, but it is questionable whether reference to these charts is all that helpful (see Appendix V). There is in fact some discussion now about removing the L texts altogether and replacing them with contemporary readings with a high percentage of L morphemes. Unfortunately, this was necessitate the use of highly technical material. Stenström's Interlingua texts employ only words which are international and are thus very accessible to the student. This text has only been available for a few years and will probably come into much wider use in the future. German, English, and Dutch editions are now in preparation. Sample pages from these texts are given in the Appendix.

10. It is debatable, were a similar course proposed in this country, whether a student's time would be well spent in mastering the Greek and Cyrillic alphabets, since perfectly adequate systems of transliteration already exist. For the Cyrillic alphabet, the Library of Congress system is most often used. For Greek, see André Martinet, "A Project of Transliteration of Classical Greek," Word, 4, pp. 152-161. It should be noted, however, that the average Swedish student finds it much easier to travel extensively in Europe than his American counterpart, and he probably appreciates being able to find his way around strange cities because he can at least transliterate street signs.

11. Ellegård, De Internationella Orden (Stockholm: Utbildningsförlaget, 1966), pp. 7-12.

12. Erik Wikén & Bo Einarsson, Allmän Språkkunskap (Stockholm: Svenska Bokförlaget, 1967), pp. 7-18.

13. Ibid., pp. 19-23.

14. Ellegård, op. cit., pp. 12-26.

15. Wikén, op. cit., pp. 12-26.

16. Ellegård, op. cit., pp. 28-32.

17. Ibid., pp. 34-44.

18. Wikén, op. cit., pp. 42-48.

19. Ibid., pp. 74-75.

20. Ellegård, op. cit., pp. 107-112.

21. Wikén, op. cit., pp. 76-94.

22. Ibid., pp. 101-121, and Ellegård, op. cit., pp. 114-120.

23. Alexander Gode, Interlingua-English Dictionary (New York: Frederick Ungar, 1961), pp. xx-xxi.

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